POLAR GEOMETRY. IV

BY

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IV. THE EMBEDDING OF AXIOMATIC POLAR GEOMETRY IN A PROJECTIVE SPACE

1. In this chapter S will be a system that satisfies the axioms I-X of the preceding chapter.

2. By \mathfrak{P}^* we denote the set of all flat subsets X^* of **S** with the following properties:

- 1. If $u \in S$ with r(u) > 0, then there exists a v < u, $r(v) \ge r(u) 1$, such that $v \in X^*$.
- 2. X^* is a proper subset of **S**.

 \mathfrak{P} will be a replica of \mathfrak{P}^* ; to each element $X^* \in \mathfrak{P}^*$ there corresponds an element $X \in \mathfrak{P}$.

For every point x of S we define an $X^* \in \mathfrak{P}^*$ as the set of all elements u of S such that $x \lor u$ exists; it can easily be verified that such a set has all the properties of the sets that belong to \mathfrak{P}^* . As x=y is equivalent to $X^* = Y^*$ (where Y^* corresponds to y in the same way as X^* to x), we can identify any point $x \in S$ to the element X of \mathfrak{P} which corresponds to $X^* \in \mathfrak{P}^*$. Instead of saying that X^* is the set of elements that are joined to $x \in S$ we shall often say $X \in S$.

3. LEMMA. If X^* and Y^* are arbitrary elements of \mathfrak{P}^* and $X^* \subset Y^*$, then $X^* = Y^*$.

Proof: Let us suppose that Y^* contains a point p that does not belong to X^* . If u > p, we can find a v < u of rank $r(v) \ge r(u) - 1$ such that $v \in X^*$. $p \notin X^*$, hence u = p + v. Both p and $v \in Y^*$, hence $u \in Y^*$.

Hence $x \in Y^*$ if $x \lor p$ exists. Now we can reason in a way similar to the proof of III, 11 to show that all elements of **S** belong to Y^* . This is in contradiction with the property of Y^* to be a proper subset of **S**.

4. In \mathfrak{P} we are going to introduce a notion of dependence. Note that if p, q and r are points in S and P, Q and R respectively are the corresponding elements of \mathfrak{P} , r is dependent on p and q if, and only if, $R^* \supset P^* \cap Q^*$.

Now we generalize this:

DEFINITION. If P, Q and R are arbitrary elements of \mathfrak{P} , then R is called dependent on P and Q if, and only if, $R^* \supset P^* \cap Q^*$.

It follows from section 3 that if P = Q, R is dependent on P and Q if, and only if, R = P.

It is trivial that P and Q themselves depend on P and Q.

5. PROPOSITION. If P, Q and $R \in \mathfrak{P}$, $Q \neq R$ and R is dependent on P and Q, then P is dependent on Q and R.

Proof: We know: $R^* \supset P^* \cap Q^*$ and we have to prove: $P^* \supset Q^* \cap R^*$. Suppose this statement not to be true. Then there exists a point $a \in \mathbf{S}$ such that $a \in Q^* \cap R^*$ but $a \notin P^*$. Then we shall prove $Q^* \subset R^*$, hence $Q^* = R^*$, which leads to a contradiction with the assumption $Q \neq R$.

First we consider an arbitrary line l > a, $l \in Q^*$. There must be a point b < l, $b \in P^*$. Since $a \notin P^*$, $a \neq b$. As $b \in P^* \cap Q^*$, $b \in R^*$. Hence $l \in R^*$.

Now let c be an arbitrary point $\in Q^*$. If $c \in P^*$, then $c \in P^* \cap Q^*$ and hence $c \in R^*$. Suppose $c \notin P^*$.

If $c \lor a$ exists, $c \in R^*$ as we have just proved.

Suppose $c \lor a$ does not exist. Take a line l > a, $l \in Q^*$. On l we can find a point b such that $b \lor c$ exists. We know that $b \in Q^* \cap R^*$; if moreover $b \notin P^*$, we can prove that $c \in R^*$ in exactly the same way as we did above with a instead of b.

Now suppose such a point b cannot be found, that is to say: if $b \in Q^*$ and $b \lor a$ and $b \lor c$ exist, then $b \in P^*$. We can easily find two points b_1 and b_2 , both $\in Q^*$, such that $b_i \lor a$ and $b_i \lor c$ exist but $b_1 \lor b_2$ does not. By a similar reasoning as in III, 11, part 2c., we conclude that in this case too $c \in R^*$.

Hence $Q^* \subset R^*$ as we intended to prove.

6. DEFINITION. If P and $Q \in \mathfrak{P}$, the line P+Q is defined as the set of all elements of \mathfrak{P} that depend on P and Q.

PROPOSITION. For every two elements of \mathfrak{P} there is one and only one line containing those elements.

Proof: Let R and T be two different points on P+Q; by applying proposition 5 we conclude P+Q=R+T.

In the sequel we shall often speak of *points* instead of elements of \mathfrak{P} .

7. LEMMA. Let P, Q and R be points of \mathfrak{P} such that $R^* \supset P^* \cap Q^*$ and $P \neq Q$. Let x be a point $\in S$ that is $\in R^*$, but $x \notin P^* \cap Q^*$.

Then R^* is the smallest flat subset of **S** that contains both $P^* \cap Q^*$ and x.

Proof: We may suppose, for instance, $R \neq P$. Let θ be a flat subset of **S** such that $\theta \supset P^* \cap Q^*$, $x \in \theta$ and $\theta \subset R^*$.

Let y be an arbitrary point in R^* . If $x \vee y$ exists, it is $\in R^*$. There must exist a point $z < x \vee y$, $z \in P^*$. Then $z \in P^* \vee R^*$ and hence $z \in Q^*$ (proposition 5). Hence $z \in \theta$ and $x \in \theta$ and therefore $x \vee z \in \theta$. Hence $y \in \theta$.

If $x \lor y$ does not exist, a reasoning like that in III, 11, part 2b. and c., leads to $R^* \subset \theta$. Hence $\theta = R^*$.

8. PROPOSITION. Let x and y be points of S identified with X and $Y \in \mathfrak{P}$. Suppose that $x \lor y$ exists. Then X + Y is the set of all $Z \in \mathfrak{P}$ corresponding to the points $z < x \lor y$. (In this case we shall often write $X \lor Y$ instead of X + Y).

Proof: If $z < x \lor y$, it is trivial that $Z \in X + Y$. Suppose conversely $Z \in X + Y$.

Choose a point $r \in Z^*$, $r \notin X^* \cap Y^*$. There is a point $t < x \lor y$ such that $t \lor r$ exists. Let $T \in \mathfrak{P}$ correspond to t. Then $T^* \supset X^* \cap Y^*$ and $r \in T^*$. It follows from the preceding lemma that $T^* \supset Z^*$, hence T = Z (lemma 3).

9. Now we are going to prove that if a line intersects two sides of a triangle (not at their common point), it also intersects the third side. But before doing so we shall prove a useful lemma.

LEMMA. Let θ be a subset of **S** with the following properties:

1. If x and $y \in \theta$ and $x \lor y$ exists, the latter is also in θ .

2. There exist two points x and y in θ such that $x \lor y$ does not exist and every point of xy belongs to θ .

3. If $x \in \theta$ and $y \leq x$, then $y \in \theta$.

4. If $u \in S$ with r(u) > 0, then there exists a $v \le u$ of rank $r(v) \ge r(u) - 1$ such that $v \in \theta$.

Then θ is flat and hence $\theta = \mathbf{S}$ or $\theta \in \mathfrak{P}^*$ (owing to property 4).

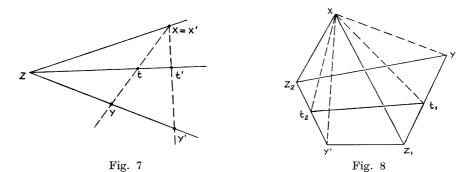
Proof: We have only to show that if x' and y' are two points in θ such that $x' \lor y'$ does not exist, every point of x'y' belongs to θ .

The general case can easily be reduced to the case that xy and x'y' have a point in common (in the same way as in part b. of the proof of III, 9). So we may suppose x=x'.

a. $y \lor y'$ exists.

Then $y \lor y' \in \theta$. Let $z < y \lor y'$ be the point such that $x \lor z$ exists; $z \in \theta$.

If t' is an arbitrary point of x'y', then $t' \lor z$ exists and intersects xy in a point t (III, 8). $t \in \theta$ and $z \in \theta$, hence $t \lor z \in \theta$ and consequently $t' \in \theta$.



b. $y \vee y'$ does not exist. If there is a point $y'' \in \theta$ such that $y \vee y''$ and $y' \vee y''$ exist but $x \vee y''$ does not, then we apply a. twice: to xy and xy'' and then to xy'' and xy'.

c. $y \lor y'$ does not exist and there is no point $y'' \in \theta$ as in b.

There are points z_1 and z_2 in θ such that $z_i \lor y$ and $z_i \lor y'$ exist and $z_1 \lor z_2$ does not. Then $z_i \lor x$ must exist because of the above hypothesis.

Choose points $t_1 < y \lor z_1$ and $t_2 < y' \lor z_2$, $t_i \neq z_i$, such that $t_1 \lor t_2$ exists. Then $x \lor t_i$ does not exist. t_1 and t_2 are in θ . Hence we can apply the line of reasoning of a. thrice: first we project xy onto xt_1 , then xt_1 onto xt_2 and finally xt_2 onto xy'. This completes the proof.

10. PROPOSITION. If A, B, C, P and Q are points in \mathfrak{P} , $P \in A + B$, $Q \in A + C$, $A \notin B + C$, $A \notin P + Q$, then the line B + C intersects P + Q at a point R.

Proof: For maximal elements u of S, we define the following subsets of S by induction:

(1, u) contains all $x \leq u$ with $x \in B^* \cap C^*$ or $x \in P^* \cap Q^*$.

(2, u) contains all $z \leq x \lor y$ where x and $y \in (1, u)$.

If $n \ge 2$, then

(n+1, u) contains all $z \leq x \lor y$ where $x \in (n, u)$, $y \leq u$ and $y \in (n, v)$ for some maximal v such that $r(u \land v) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$.

Notice that $(n, u) \subset (n+1, u)$ for every n and that $x \in (n, u)$, $x \leq v$ and $r(u \wedge v) = i(\mathbf{S}) - k$ implies $x \in (n+k, v)$.

Now we define

 $R^* = \bigcup (n, u)$ where the union is taken over all $n \ge 1$ and all maximal $u \in S$.

From the above remark it is clear that $x \lor y \in R^*$ if $x \in R^*$, $y \in R^*$ and $x \lor y$ exists.

From the definition of (n, u) it follows that $y \in R^*$ if $y \leq x$ such that $x \in R^*$.

Now we observe that in $B^* \cap C^*$ there exist two points x and y such that $x \lor y$ does not exist; but then all points of the imaginary line xy belong to $B^* \cap C^*$ and hence to R^* .

In the next sections we shall prove:

(1) If $u \in S$ and r(u) > 0, then there exists a $v \le u, r(v) \ge r(u) - 1$ such that $v \in \mathbb{R}^*$.

(2) $R^* \neq \mathbf{S}$.

Hence we can apply the preceding lemma and conclude $R^* \in \mathfrak{P}^*$. Therefore there exists a point $R \in \mathfrak{P}$ such that $R \in B+C$ and $R \in P+Q$; for $R^* \supset B^* \cap C^*$ and $R^* \supset P^* \cap Q^*$. This proves the proposition. 11. First we examine the sets (2, u). It is not hard to see that there must be a $u' \leq u$ such that $u' \in (2, u)$ and $x \leq u'$ for every $x \in (2, u)$. (We shall call u' the maximal element of (2, u); for any maximal $x \in \mathbf{S}$, the maximal element of (2, x) is denoted by x'.)

We distinguish four cases:

- α . $r(u') = i(\mathbf{S})$, i.e. u' = u.
- β . $r(u') = i(\mathbf{S}) 1$ and (1, u) contains an element of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) 1$.
- γ . $r(u') = i(\mathbf{S}) 1$ and (1, u) does not contain any element of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) 1$.
- δ . $r(u') = i(\mathbf{S}) 2$. Then $u' \in B^* \cap C^*$ and $u' \in P^* \cap Q^*$ and for all $x \leq u$ such that $x \in B^* \cap C^*$ or $x \in P^* \cap Q^*$ we have $x \leq u'$.

Note that there is always a $v \leq u$ such that $v \in B^* \cap C^*$ and $r(v) \geq i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$ and analogous for $P^* \cap Q^*$. Moreover, that

$$A^* \cap B^* \cap C^* = A^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*.$$

In the next section we shall prove the existence of a $u \in \mathbf{S}$ of type γ ; moreover, that R^* has the property mentioned as (1) in the preceding section. In sections 13 and 14 we shall finally show that if u is of type γ , (n+1, u) = (n, u) for $n \ge 2$. Hence $R^* \ne \mathbf{S}$, as we required in (2) of the preceding section.

12. We start with taking a point $x \in P^*$, $\notin Q^*$ (remember that $P \neq Q$); let X be the element of \mathfrak{P} corresponding to x.

If $P^* \supset X^*$, then P = X (lemma 3). In that case we can find a point $y \in P^*$, $\notin Q^*$, $y \neq x$ (e.g. on a line in P^* passing through x); then $P \neq Y$ and hence $P^* \neq Y^*$.

If $P^* \not \supset X^*$, we take y = x.

In both cases there exists a point in Y^* that is not in P^* . Hence we can find a $u_1 \in S$ of rank i(S) such that $y < u_1$ and $u_1 \notin P^*$.

Let $v_1 < u_1$ be an element of P^* of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$ and $w_1 < u_1$ an element of Q^* of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$. Owing to the fact that $y \in P^*$, $\notin Q^*$, $v_1 \neq w_1$.

Hence $r(v_1 \wedge w_1) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$. Remark that if $x \leq u_1$ and $x \in P^*$, then $x \leq v_1$; and similar for Q^* .

The same can be done with B^* and C^* instead of P^* and Q^* in some maximal element u_2 of **S**; then we get $v_2 < u_2$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, $v_2 \in B^*$, and $w_2 < u_2$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, $w_2 \in C^*$, such that $v_2 \neq w_2$.

If $u_1 \neq u_2$, we select a u_3 of rank $i(\mathbf{S})$ such that $r(u_1 \wedge u_3) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, $r(u_2 \wedge u_3) = r(u_1 \wedge u_2) + 1$ and such that $u_3 \ge v_1 \wedge w_1$. Now $u_1 \notin P^*$, $\notin Q^*$ and hence the same is true for u_3 , for $r(u_1 \wedge u_3) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$. We can find $v_3 < u_3$ and $w_3 < u_3$, of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, $v_3 \in P^*$ and $w_3 \in Q^*$. As $v_3 \wedge u_1 = v_1 \wedge u_3$ and $w_3 \wedge u_1 = w_1 \wedge u_3$, $v_3 \neq w_3$. Now we repeat this reasoning with u_3 instead of u_1 , etc.

Finally we come, for instance, to u_4 of rank $i(\mathbf{S})$ such that $r(u_4 \wedge u_2) = = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$ and such that there exist $v_4 < u_4$, $v_4 \in P^*$, $r(v_4) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, and $w_4 < u_4$, $w_4 \in Q^*$, $r(w_4) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, with $v_4 \neq w_4$.

If $u_4 \wedge u_2 \ge v_2 \wedge w_2$, we can reason as above to show that there exist $v_4^* < u_4, v_4^* \in B^*, r(v_4^*) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, and $w_4^* < u_4, w_4^* \in C^*, r(w_4^*) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, with $v_4^* \neq w_4^*$.

If $u_4 \wedge u_2 > v_2 \wedge w_2$, we take u_5 and u_6 of rank $i(\mathbf{S})$ in the way that $r(u_4 \wedge u_5) = r(u_5 \wedge u_6) = r(u_6 \wedge u_2) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$, $u_4 \wedge u_5 \geqslant v_4 \wedge w_4$, $u_5 \wedge u_6 \geqslant v_5 \wedge w_5$, $u_6 \wedge u_2 \geqslant v_2 \wedge w_2$. In that case we have in u_6 similar v_6 , w_6 , v_6^* , w_6^* , $\in P^*$, Q^* , B^* and C^* respectively, as we had in u_4 in the case $u_4 \wedge u_2 \geqslant v_2 \wedge w_2$. So we have constructed a $u \in \mathbf{S}$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S})$ that must be of type γ or δ ;

 $u=u_4$ or $u=u_6$.

If u is of type δ , we proceed as follows to construct an element of type γ : Consider $v \leq u$, $r(v) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$, $v \in B^* \cap C^*$ and $v \in P^* \cap Q^*$.

If there is a point $x \in B^* \cap C^*$, $\notin P^* \cap Q^*$, such that $x \lor v$ does not exist, then we take a w such that x < w, $r(w) = i(\mathbf{S})$, $r(u \land w) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$. It is very easy to show that w is of type γ .

If for every $x \in B^* \cap C^*$, $\notin P^* \cap Q^*$, $x \lor v$ exists, we choose such a point x.

Select a point $y \in B^* \cap C^*$ such that $y \vee v$ does not exist; then $y \in P^* \cap Q^*$. Take $w_1 > y$ such that $r(w_1) = i(\mathbf{S})$, $r(w_1 \wedge u) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$. (Note that, in what follows, the characters w_1 and w_2 have not the same meaning as above). Then w_1 must be of type δ ; for $y \in B^* \cap C^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*$ and $w_1 \wedge v \in B^* \cap \cap C^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*$ is of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 3$ and disjoint from y; the elements, for instance, of P^* that are $\leq w_1$ are all contained in one of them, which is the join of y and the element $\in P^*$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$ that is $\leq w_1 \wedge u$.

Now we select a point $z < x \lor v$, $z \leq v$, such that $z \lor y$ does not exist. Take $w_2 > z$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S})$ such that $r(w_2 \land w_1) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$. As $z \in B^* \cap C^*$ but $\notin P^* \cap Q^*$, w_2 must be of type γ .

So we have constructed an element of **S** of type γ .

Finally we shall prove the property indicated as (1) in section 10. Let u be an arbitrary maximal element of **S**. If u is of type α , β or γ , $r(u') \ge i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$; so (2, u) contains an element < u of rank $\ge i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$ and so does R^* .

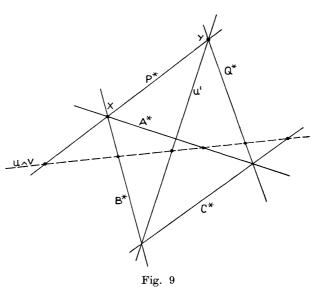
If u is of type δ , we can construct, as we did before, a maximal $w_2 \in \mathbf{S}$ that is of type γ . It is easy to see that $(3, w_1)$ must contain an element of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$ and hence the same is true of (4, u).

Hence there exists an element $\leq u$ of rank $\geq i(S) - 1$ that is $\in R^*$.

13. In this section we are going to prove:

If u is of type γ , then (3, u) = (2, u). Taking into account that $A^* \supset \supset P^* \cap B^{*-1}$) and hence $P^* \supset A^* \cap B^*$ and $B^* \supset P^* \cap A^*$ one can easily verify that we must have in u a situation such as indicated in the figure, which shows the case that u is a plane (r(u)=3); in the general case we have subspaces of rank $i(\mathbf{S})-1$ instead of lines, etc.; then

¹⁾ We have to prove proposition 10 only in the case that $P \neq B$ and $Q \neq C$, the other cases being trivial.



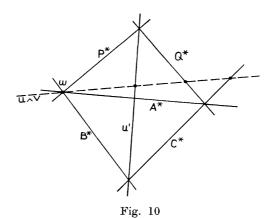
 $A^* \cap B^* \cap C^* = A^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*$ contains an element of rank i(S) - 3 that is $\leq u$.

Now let v be such that $r(v) = i(\mathbf{S})$ and $r(u \wedge v) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$.

First suppose v such that there is no $w < u \land v$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$ that is $\in B^* \cap P^*$, $B^* \cap C^*$, $C^* \cap Q^*$ or $P^* \cap Q^*$.

Then it is clear that v is of type γ or δ ; in the latter case (2, v) does not add anything to (3, u). In the former one we proceed as follows: we define a projectivity π of u upon v by taking: $\pi = \text{identity on } u \wedge v, x^{\pi} = x',$ $y^{\pi} = y'$ where x and y are points $\langle u$ which belong to $B^* \cap P^*$ and $P^* \cap Q^*$ respectively and x' and y' are similar in v. It is not very difficult to verify that π maps elements of B^* onto elements of B^* and does similarly with C^* , P^* , Q^* and A^* .

But then u'^{π} must be equal to v'. As π is the identity on $u \wedge v$, $u' \wedge v = v' \wedge u$. Hence (2, v) cannot add anything to (3, u) that was not previously in (2, u).



Now let v be such that $u \wedge v \notin A^*$ and that there is a $w \leq u \wedge v$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$ such that $w \in P^* \cap B^*$.

We have only to consider the case that v is of type γ , for otherwise (2, v) can add no points to (3, u) that are not previously in (2, u). We shall prove the existence of a projectivity π of u upon v that transforms elements of B^* into elements of B^* and similarly for C^* , P^* , Q^* and A^* and that leaves $v' \wedge u$ pointwise invariant. As π leaves w and $v' \wedge u$ invariant, it also leaves $u \wedge v$ invariant, as $w \neq v' \wedge u$. It is clear that π must transform u' into v'. Hence $u' \wedge v$ is transformed into $v' \wedge u$. But the latter is invariant under π (see the above characterisation of π), hence $u' \wedge v = v' \wedge u$. Hence again (2, v) does not add any new point to (3, u).

To prove the existence of the required projectivity π we reason as follows:

We choose maximal w_1 and $w_2 \in S$ with the following properties:

a. $w_{1,2} \ge v' \wedge u$.

b. $r(w_1 \wedge u) = r(w_1 \wedge w_2) = r(w_2 \wedge v) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1.$

c. $w_1 \wedge u$ is in the general position such as described above, i.e. it does not contain elements $\leq u$ of $B^* \cap C^*$, $B^* \cap P^*$, $C^* \cap Q^*$ or $P^* \cap Q^*$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S})-2$; the same is true of $w_2 \wedge v$.

Then w_1 and w_2 are of type γ or δ ; if they are both of type δ , we may, moreover, suppose that they do not contain the same element of rank $i(\mathbf{S})-2$ of $B^* \cap C^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*$.

If, for instance, w_1 is of type γ , then there is a projectivity of u upon w_1 transforming elements of B^* , C^* , P^* , Q^* and A^* respectively into similar elements that is the identity on $u \wedge w_1$ and hence leaves invariant $v' \wedge u$; this has been proved above.

Now if w_2 is also of type γ , there exists a similar projectivity of w_1 upon w_2 and of w_2 upon v (for v was supposed to be of type γ). Thus we find the projectivity of u upon v that we looked for.

It is also possible that w_1 or w_2 or both are of type δ . Let us suppose, for instance, w_1 of type δ and w_2 of type γ .

We choose a point $x < w_1$, $x \leq u \land w_1$, $x \leq w_1 \land w_2$, $x \in B^* \cap C^* \cap P^* \cap O^*$. Then we project $u \land w_1$ upon $w_1 \land w_2$ from x; this projection transforms elements of A^* , B^* , C^* , P^* and Q^* into similar elements and can hence be extended to a projectivity of u upon w_2 of the same property.

In the other possible cases we follow a similar line of reasoning. We find always a projectivity of u upon v with the required properties.

The case $u \wedge v \in A^*$ is treated likewise.

Finally we have to consider the case that $u \wedge v$ contains, for instance, the element $\leq u$ of $B^* \cap C^*$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$. But then, again, (2, v) can add no points to (3, u) that were not already contained in (2, u).

14. After we have proved in the preceding section that (2, u) = (3, u) if u is of type γ , we shall now suppose

 $(2, u) = (3, u) = \dots = (n, u)$ for every maximal $u \in S$ of type γ , $(n \ge 3)$, and show that

$$(n, u) = (n+1, u)$$
 if u is of type γ .

Suppose v_1 maximal $\in \mathbf{S}$ such that $r(u \wedge v_1) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$ and such that there is no $w \leq u \wedge v_1$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$ that is $\in B^* \cap C^*$, $B^* \cap P^*$, $C^* \cap Q^*$ or $P^* \cap Q^*$.

Then v_1 must be of type γ or δ ; in the former case $(2, v_1) = (n, v_1)$. But we have seen in the preceding section that if $x \in (2, v_1)$ and $x \leq u \wedge v_1$, then $x \in (2, u)$. Hence (n, v_1) does not add anything to (n+1, u) that is not in (n, u).

Now suppose that v_1 is of type δ and that we have maximal v_2, \ldots, v_k such that $r(v_i, v_{i+1}) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1, v_2, \ldots, v_{k-2}$ and v_{k-1} are of type δ and v_k is of type γ .

If there is any i < k-1 such that $v_i \wedge v_{i+1} \ge w$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$, $w \in B^* \cap C^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*$, then we can add some maximal $v_{i,1}, \ldots, v_{i,l}$ such that $r(v_i \wedge v_{i,1}) = r(v_{i,1} \wedge v_{i,2}) = \ldots = r(v_{i,l} \wedge v_{i+1}) = i(\mathbf{S}) - 1$ and such that neither $v_i \wedge v_{i,1}, v_{i,1} \wedge v_{i,2}, \ldots$, nor $v_{i,l} \wedge v_{i+1}$ has a similar property as $v_i \wedge v_{i+1}$. Hence we may suppose about v_1, \ldots, v_k : for every i < k-1, $v_i \wedge v_{i+1}$ does not contain an element of $B^* \cap C^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*$ of rank $i(\mathbf{S}) - 2$.

Then we can select points $x_i < v_i$ (i = 1, ..., k - 1) such that $x_i \in B^* \cap C^* \cap P^* \cap Q^*$, $x_i \leq v_{i-1} \wedge v_i$ and $x_i \leq v_i \wedge v_{i+1}$. We project $v_{i-1} \wedge v_i$ upon $v_i \wedge v_{i+1}$ from x_i . Note that we take $v_0 = u$. Thus we get a projectivity of $u \wedge v_1$ upon $v_{k-1} \wedge v_k$ that transforms elements of A^* , B^* , C^* , P^* and Q^* respectively into similar elements; this application can be extended to a projectivity π of u upon v_k of the same property. It is not hard to verify that π maps u' upon v_k' .

Now we know that $(n+1-k, v_k) = (2, v_k)$, as v_k is of type γ . The only points that $(n+1-k, v_k)$ can add to (n+1, u) must hence be $\leq (v_k' \wedge v_{k-1})^{n-1}$; but this is $u' \wedge v_1$ and therefore $(n+1-k, v_k)$ does not add anything to (n+1, u) that was not already in (n, u).

Another situation that we have to consider is the one where v_1, \ldots, v_k are as above with the only difference that v_k is of type α , β or δ . The former one can be reduced to the case we have just treated and in the latter two cases $(n+1-k, v_k)$ does not add anything to (n+1, u) that was not previously in (n, u).

The cases that $u \wedge v_1$ is not quite as we supposed at the beginning of this section can be treated in a similar way as in section 13.

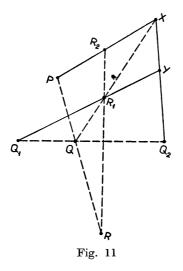
Hence (n+1, u) = (n, u), which had to be proved.

This achieves the proof of proposition 10.

15. Now we consider the smallest subset \mathfrak{P}' of \mathfrak{P} with the property: If X and Y are two points of S, then every point $Z \in X + Y$ belongs to \mathfrak{P}' . (Here the points of S are considered as elements of \mathfrak{P} ; cf. section 2.) We shall prove: **PROPOSITION.** If P and Q are elements of \mathfrak{P}' and $R \in P+Q$, then R is also in \mathfrak{P}' .

Proof:

- a. $P \in \mathbf{S}, Q \in \mathbf{S}$. Then $R \in \mathfrak{P}'$ owing to the definition.
- b. $P \in \mathbf{S}, Q \notin \mathbf{S}.$



There exist points Q_1 and Q_2 , both $\in \mathbf{S}$, such that $Q \in Q_1 + Q_2$. We may suppose $P \notin Q_1 + Q_2$, for otherwise the proof is trivial. Hence there exists a point $X \in \mathbf{S}$ such that $X \vee P$ and $X \vee Q_2$ exist but $X \vee Q_1$ does not. Let Y be the point $\in X \vee Q_2$ such that $Y \vee Q_1$ exists. Let R_1 be the intersection of the lines $Q_1 \vee Y$ and Q + X and R_2 that of $P \vee X$ and $R + R_1$, then $R \in R_1 + R_2$ where R_1 and R_2 are points of \mathbf{S} (because of 8).

c. $P \notin S$, $Q \notin S$.

Then $P \in P_1 + P_2$ and $Q \in Q_1 + Q_2$ where the points P_i and Q_i belong to S.

On the line $R + P_1$ there must be a point X such that $X + P_2$ contains a point $Y \in Q_1 + Q_2$ (follows from proposition 10). From b. it follows that $X \in X_1 + X_2$ where X_1 and X_2 belong to **S**. But then $R \in R_1 + R_2$ where R_1 and $R_2 \in \mathbf{S}$, as follows again from b.

This completes the proof.

16. PROPOSITION. If P is an arbitrary element of \mathfrak{P}' and Q a point $\in \mathbf{S}, \ Q \notin P^*$, then there exists a point $R \in \mathbf{S}, \ R \neq Q, \ R \in P+Q$.

Proof: The case $P \in S$ is trivial. So we suppose $P \notin S$.

On account of the definition of \mathfrak{P}' we can find two different points Q_1 and R_1 in **S** such that $P \in Q_1 + R_1$. If $Q \in Q_1 + R_1$, nothing remains to be proved.

If $Q \notin Q_1 + R_1$ but, for instance, $Q \lor Q_1$ exists, then we consider the 36 Series A point $X < Q \lor Q_1$ such that $X \lor R_1$ exists. As $Q \notin P^*$, $Q \neq X$. Hence the line P+Q intersects $X \lor R_1$ in a point $R \neq Q$. Owing to proposition 8 $R \in S$.

If neither $Q \vee Q_1$ nor $Q \vee R_1$ exists, we take a point $X \in \mathbf{S}$ such that $X \vee Q_1$ and $X \vee R_1$ exist but $X \vee Q$ does not. (Bear in mind that $Q \notin Q_1 + R_1$.) Then we can find different points $Q_2 < Q_1 \vee X$ and $R_2 < R_1 \vee X$ such that $Q \vee Q_2$ exists and $P \in Q_2 + R_2$. Then we proceed as above with Q_2 and R_2 in stead of Q_1 and R_1 .

17. PROPOSITION. On every line in \mathfrak{P}' there are at least three points.

Proof: Consider a line P+Q. It is not very difficult to find a point $t \in \mathbf{S}$ that is neither in P^* nor in Q^* . Let t be identified with $T \in \mathfrak{P}'$. From proposition 16 it follows that there are points P_1 and $Q_1 \in \mathbf{S}$ such that

$$P \in T + P_1, \ Q \in T + Q_1.$$

From proposition 10 it follows that P+Q and P_1+Q_1 have a point R in common. It may easily be verified that $R \neq P$ and $R \neq Q$. This proves the proposition.

18. From propositions 6, 10, 15 and 17 it follows that \mathfrak{P}' is a projective space. (See G. BIRKHOFF [2], pg. 116.)

We define a flat in \mathfrak{P}' as a set of points that contains with any two points P and Q the line P+Q. It follows from proposition 8 that the elements of **S** can be considered as flats in \mathfrak{P}' .

It is clear that the intersection of **S** with a flat in \mathfrak{P}' is a flat subset of **S**. Now we apply axiom VIII (see III, 12). Let X_1, \ldots, X_p be a set of points such that **S** is the only flat subset that contains them all. Let Vbe the smallest flat in \mathfrak{P}' that contains X_1, \ldots, X_p . Then every point of **S** must belong to V. Hence V contains all points of \mathfrak{P}' .

If $X \in \mathfrak{P}'$, the symbol X will also denote the flat consisting of the element X only. Flats in \mathfrak{P}' will be denoted by great Italic characters.

The partially ordered (by inclusion) set of all flats of \mathfrak{P}' will be called **P**; the inclusion will be denoted by \leq .

The smallest flat containing two flats U and V is called U+V; their intersection is also a flat and will be called $U \cap V$. Analogous for an arbitrary number of flats: $\sum U$ or $\bigcap U$.

Every element of S can be identified in a unique way with an element of **P**. If x and y are \in S such that $x \lor y$ exists and they are identified with X and Y in **P** respectively, then we shall often write $X \lor Y$ in stead of X + Y.

The maximal element of \mathbf{P} will be called A. A has finite rank n, as we saw above.

19. Now we shall introduce a polarity σ in the space **P** such that **S** will be the set of strictly isotropic subspaces with respect to σ or, in the

case that the space \mathbf{P} is represented by a linear space over a field of characteristic 2, is contained in such a set.

If P is a point, P^{σ} is defined as the smallest flat that contains P^* . If V is a flat, we define $V^{\sigma} = \bigcap P^{\sigma}$ where the intersection is taken over all points $P \leq V$. Finally $0^{\sigma} = A$.

The proof that σ is a polarity and that **S** is (part of) the polar geometry corresponding to σ will be given in the next sections.

20. LEMMA. If P is a point, $r(P^{\sigma}) \ge n-1$ (where n is the rank of **P**).

Proof: Suppose $r(P^{\sigma}) < n-1$. We choose a point $Q \in \mathbf{S}$, $Q \leq P^{\sigma}$ and then a flat $H \ge Q + P^{\sigma}$ of rank n-1.

The elements $X \in \mathbf{S}$ such that $X \leq H$ form a flat subset θ of \mathbf{S} ; $\theta \in \mathfrak{P}^*$. $\theta \supset P^*$ and $Q \in \theta$, $Q \notin P^*$, hence $\theta \neq P^*$. But this is a contradiction with lemma 3.

Hence $r(P^{\sigma}) \ge n-1$.

21. LEMMA. If P is a point of S, then $r(P^{\sigma}) = n - 1$.

Proof: We shall prove that every point in P^{σ} depends on two points in P^* . From this it follows that $X < P^{\sigma}$, $X \in \mathbf{S}$, implies: $X \in P^*$. As $P^* \neq \mathbf{S}$, P^{σ} cannot be equal to A; hence $r(P^{\sigma}) = n - 1$.

It suffices to prove: if both Q and R depend on two points in P^* and T < Q + R, then T depends on two points in P^* .

a. $Q \in P^*$, $R \in P^*$: trivial case.

b. $Q \in P^*$, $R \notin P^*$.

Then $R < R_1 + R_2$ where the points R_1 and R_2 belong to P^* .

In this case $R \leq P \lor Q$; hence there exists a point $X \in P^* \cap Q^*$, $X \notin R^*$. Applying proposition 16 we find a point $Y \in S$, $Y \neq X$, Y < X + R. $P \in R_1^* \cap R_2^*$, hence $P \in R^*$. Therefore $P \in X^* \cap R^*$, hence $P \in Y^*$. $P \in S$, so $Y \in P^*$.

As T < Q + X + Y, the line T + Y meets $Q \lor X$ in a point Z. Hence T < Y + Z where Y and $Z \in P^*$.

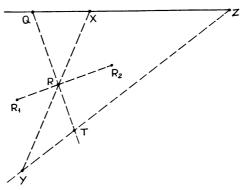


Fig. 12

c. The general case can be reduced to b. in the same way as in 15, c.

22. PROPOSITION. If P is an arbitrary point of P, $r(P^{\sigma}) = n-1$.

Proof. In view of lemmas 20 and 21 we have only to prove: $r(\mathbf{P}^{\sigma}) \leq \langle n-1$ if $P \notin \mathbf{S}$.

Take points A, B, C and D in S such that $P = (A+B) \cap (C+D)$ and such that $A \vee C$ and $B \vee D$ exist and have a point Q in common.

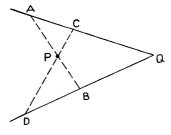


Fig. 13

Then $P^* \supset A^* \cap B^*$ and $P^* \supset C^* \cap D^*$.

As $A^* \cap B^* \notin C^* \cap D^*$, there is a point $\in A^* \cap B^*$ that is not $\in C^* \cap D^*$. It follows from lemma 7 that P^* is the smallest flat subset of **S** that contains both $A^* \cap B^*$ and $C^* \cap D^*$.

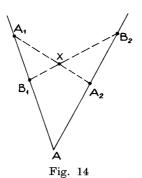
Hence $X \leq A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} + C^{\sigma} \cap D^{\sigma}$ if $X \in P^*$.

Therefore $P^{\sigma} \leq A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} + C^{\sigma} \cap D^{\sigma}$.

A and $B \in \mathbf{S}$ and $A \neq B$. From the proof of lemma 21 it follows that A^* contains a basis of A^{σ} and similar for B. Hence $A^{\sigma} \neq B^{\sigma}$. As $r(A^{\sigma}) = r(B^{\sigma}) = n-1$, $r(A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma}) \leq n-2$. Similarly $r(C^{\sigma} \cap D^{\sigma}) \leq n-2$.

It is easy to verify that $A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^* = C^* \cap D^* \cap Q^*$. We shall prove that $A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^*$ contains a basis of $A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} \cap Q^{\sigma}$ and similar for $C^{\sigma} \cap D^{\sigma} \cap Q^{\sigma}$. Hence $A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} \cap Q^{\sigma} = C^{\sigma} \cap D^{\sigma} \cap Q^{\sigma}$. As the latter flat has rank $\ge n-3$, $A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma}$ and $C^{\sigma} \cap D^{\sigma}$ have a flat of rank $\ge n-3$ in common. Therefore $r(A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} + C^{\sigma} \cap D^{\sigma}) \le n-1$, hence $r(P^{\sigma}) \le n-1$, which had to be proved.

We have still to show that $A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^*$ contains a basis of $A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} \cap Q^{\sigma}$. Keep in mind that A, B and $Q \in \mathbf{S}$, $A \notin B^*$, $Q \leq A + B$.



Let X be a point, $X \leq A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} \cap C^{\sigma}$.

 $X \leq A^{\sigma}$, hence $X \leq A_1 + A_2$ where A_1 and A_2 are points in A^* (See the proof of lemma 21).

We can find a point $B_1 < A \lor A_1$, $B_1 \in B^*$. As $A \notin B^*$, $B_1 \neq A$. Hence a point $B_2 < A \lor A_2$ exists such that $X < B_1 + B_2$. $X < B^{\sigma}$ and $B_1 < B^{\sigma}$, hence $B_2 < B^{\sigma}$; B_2 also $\in \mathbf{S}$, hence $B_2 \in B^*$ (see proof of lemma 21). Hence B_1 and $B_2 \in A^* \cap B^*$.

One can easily prove the existence of a point $Y \in S$ such that $B_1 \vee Y$ and $B_2 \vee Y$ exist and are $\in A^* \cap B^*$.

If we can find a point $Q_1 \in Q^*$, $Q_1 < B_1 \lor Y$, $Q_1 \neq Y$, we apply an analogous reasoning as in the case of B_1 and B_2 to find $Q_2 \in A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^*$ such that $X < Q_1 + Q_2$.

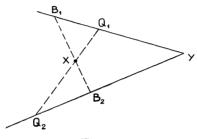


Fig. 15

If such a point Q_1 does not exist, $Y \in A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^*$, for there must exist a point $\in Q^*$ on the line $B_1 \vee Y$.

As $Q^* \not A^* \cap B^*$, we can find a point $Z \in A^* \cap B^*$, $Z \notin Q^*$.

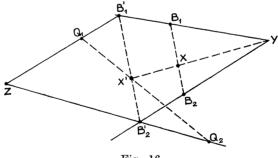


Fig. 16

Let $B_i' < B_i \lor Y$ be such a point that $B_i' \lor Z$ exists. Then $B_i' \lor Z \in A^* \cap B^*$.

Take $X' = (X + Y) \cap (B_1' + B_2')$.

Then we can find points Q_1 and $Q_2 \in A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^*$, $Q_i < B_i' + Z$, such that $X' < Q_1 + Q_2$ (see above), for $Z \notin Q^*$.

Then $X < Q_1 + Q_2 + Y$ where Q_1 , Q_2 are Y belong to $A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^*$.

23. LEMMA. Let P be an arbitrary point and Q a point $\in S$, $Q < P^{\sigma}$. Then $Q \in P^*$. Proof: If $Q \notin P^*$, the elements of **S** which are $\ll P^{\sigma}$ would form a flat subset that contains P^* and a point $Q \notin P^*$, hence all the elements of **S**. This would imply $P^{\sigma} = A$, which is not true.

24. LEMMA. If P, Q and R are points, P < Q + R, $Q \in P^*$ and $R \in S$, then $P \in S$.

Proof: We may suppose $P \neq Q$. Then $Q^* \notin P^*$ (see lemma 3). Choose a line $L \in S$ through Q, $L \notin P^*$. Let Q' < L be the point such that $Q' \lor R$ exists. Then $Q' \in Q^* \cap R^*$, hence $Q' \in P^*$.

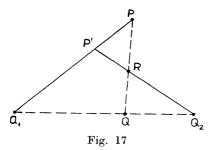
As $L \notin P^*$, Q' = Q. But then $Q \lor R$ exists and $P < Q \lor R$, hence $P \in S$.

25. PROPOSITION. If P and Q are points and $P < Q^{\sigma}$, then $Q < P^{\sigma}$.

Proof: We may suppose $P \neq Q$.

a. $P \in Q^*$.

We choose a point $Q_1 \in P^*$, $Q_1 \notin Q^*$. There is a point $Q_2 < Q_1 + Q$, $Q_2 \in \mathbf{S}$, $Q_2 \neq Q_1$ (proposition 16). If $Q_2 \vee P$ exists, Q_1 and $Q_2 \in P^*$ and hence $Q < P^{\sigma}$.



If $Q_2 \vee P$ does not exist, we take the point $P' < P \vee Q_1$ such that $P' \vee Q_2$ exists. Then P+Q intersects $P' \vee Q_2$ at a point $R \in S$ different from P. Applying lemma 24 we see that $Q \in S$.

 $P \in Q^*$ implies: $P \lor Q$ exists; hence $Q \in P^*$.

b. $P \notin Q^*$.

From proposition 16 and lemma 23 we infer the existence of points P_1 and P_2 , both $\in Q^*$, such that $P < P_1 + P_2$. We may suppose $Q \leq P_1 + P_2$. Now choose a point $Q_1 \in P_1^* \cap P_2^*$, $Q_1 \notin Q^*$. As $Q \in P_1^{\sigma} \cap P_2^{\sigma}$ (follows from *a*.), we can find a point $Q_2 \in P_1^* \cap P_2^*$, $Q_2 \neq Q_1$, such that $Q < Q_1 + Q_2$ (proposition 16 and lemma 23). $Q_i \in P_1^* \cap P_2^*$ implies $Q_i \in P^*$. Hence $Q < P^{\sigma}$.

26. PROPOSITION. If P_1, \ldots, P_k are points, then $(P_1 + \ldots + P_k)^{\sigma} = = P_1^{\sigma} \cap \ldots \cap P_k^{\sigma}$.

Proof: We shall prove that

 $P^{\sigma} > P_1^{\sigma} \cap P_2^{\sigma}$ if $P \leq P_1 + P_2$ (P, P_1 and P_2 points).

From this it follows by induction that

 $P \leq P_1 + \ldots + P_k$ implies $P^{\sigma} \geq P_1^{\sigma} \cap \ldots \cap P_k^{\sigma}$ and this proves the assertion if we take account of the definition of σ (see section 19).

Now suppose $P \leq P_1 + P_2$. Then $P^* \supset P_1^* \cap P_2^*$.

Making use of proposition 16 and lemma 23 one can prove that every point $\neq P_1$, $\neq P_2$ of $P_1^{\sigma} \cap P_2^{\sigma}$ depends on at most three points of $P_1^* \cap P_2^*$ in a way analogous to that of the end of section 22 where it was proved that $A^* \cap B^* \cap Q^*$ contains a basis of $A^{\sigma} \cap B^{\sigma} \cap Q^{\sigma}$. Difficulties arise if, for instance, $P_1 < P_1^{\sigma} \cap P_2^{\sigma}$. Then choose a point $X \in P_1^* \cap$ $\cap P_2^*$ such that $P_2 \leqslant P_1 + X$ and next a point $Y < P_1 + X$, $Y \neq X$, $\neq P_1$. As $Y < P_1^{\sigma} \cap P_2^{\sigma}$, it depends upon at most three points of $P_1^* \cap P_2^*$.

So $P_1^* \cap P_2^*$ contains a basis of $P_1^{\sigma} \cap P_2^{\sigma}$. But then it follows from

$$P^* \supset P_1^* \cap P_2^*$$
 that

$$P^{\sigma} \geq P_1^{\sigma} \cap P_2^{\sigma},$$

which had to be proved.

27. PROPOSITION. σ is a polarity.

Proof: (a'). For every $V \in \mathbf{P}$, V^{σ} is uniquely defined. See section 19. (b'). If $V \leq W$, then $V^{\sigma} \geq W^{\sigma}$. Follows from the definition of σ .

To prove the converse it suffices to show that $\sigma^2 = 1$.

From proposition 25 it follows that $V \leq V^{\sigma\sigma}$.

Now choose a W such that $V \oplus W = A$. (Bear in mind that A is the maximal element of **P**.) From proposition 26 it follows that $r(V^{\sigma}) \ge n - -r(V)$. Suppose $r(V^{\sigma}) \ge n - r(V)$.

As $r(W^{\sigma}) \ge n - r(W)$, we find

$$r(V^{\sigma})+r(W^{\sigma})>n-r(V)+n-r(W)=n.$$

From proposition 26 again it follows that $V^{\sigma} \cap W^{\sigma} = A^{\sigma}$.

 $A \leq A^{\sigma\sigma}$, hence $A^{\sigma\sigma} = A$. Hence $A^{\sigma} = 0$, for if a point $P \leq A^{\sigma}$, we should have $A^{\sigma\sigma} \leq P^{\sigma} \neq A$.

Hence $V^{\sigma} \cap W^{\sigma} = 0$. But then it is impossible that $r(V^{\sigma}) + r(W^{\sigma}) > n$. So we see that

$$r(V^{\sigma})=n-r(V).$$

Hence $r(V^{\sigma\sigma}) = r(V)$ and this implies $V^{\sigma\sigma} = V$, i.e. $\sigma^2 = 1$.

(c'). To every $Z \in \mathbf{P}$ there exists an X such that $X^{\sigma} = Z$. For take $X = Z^{\sigma}$.

So we see that σ is a duality. As we have already proved that $\sigma^2 = 1$, σ is a polarity.

28. Proposition. If $X \in S$, then $X \leq X^{\sigma}$.

Proof: If P is a point $\in S$, then $P \in P^*$ and hence $P < P^{\sigma}$.

If $X = P_1 + \ldots + P_k \in S$, where P_1, \ldots, P_k are points, then $P_i \in P_j^*$ for every *i* and *j* and hence $P_i < P_j^{\sigma}$.

Therefore $X^{\sigma} = P_1^{\sigma} \cap \ldots \cap P_k^{\sigma} \ge P_1 + \ldots + P_k = X.$

29. The maximal elements of **S** are projective spaces of rank >3; hence they can be represented by linear spaces over a field F. As the characteristic of F does not depend on the special choice of F, we can define:

characteristic of \mathbf{S} = characteristic of F.

Now we shall prove:

PROPOSITION. If S is of characteristic $\neq 2, X \in S$ if, and only if, $X \leq X^{\sigma}$.

Proof: "only if" has been proved in proposition 28. "if":

It suffices to prove: if P is a point and $P \leq P^{\sigma}$, then $P \in S$.

For suppose $X = P_1 + \ldots + P_k$ and $X < X^{\sigma}$. Then $P_1 + \ldots + P_k < P_1^{\sigma} \cap \ldots \cap P_k^{\sigma}$. $P_i < P_i^{\sigma}$ implies $P_i \in S$. Then $P_i < P_j^{\sigma}$ implies $P_i \in P_j^*$ (lemma 23), i.e. $P_i \lor P_j$ exists. Hence $P_1 \lor \ldots \lor P_k$ exists, i.e. $X \in S$. So we suppose $P < P^{\sigma}$, P a point.

There exist points Q and $R \in S$ such that P < Q + R. Hence it suffices to show:

If there are two different points of S on a line L, every isotropic point on L is in S.

Taking account of proposition III, 9 it is readily seen that we have to prove the above assertion for *one* such line L only; realize that if two points of **S** are conjugated with respect to σ , they are joined in **S** (lemma 23).

Suppose **P** represented as the lattice of subspaces of the linear space A and σ represented by the semi-bilinear form f that is supposed to be hermitian or skew-symmetric.

Now choose four independent points $x_{\#}$, $y_{\#}$, $u_{\#}$ and $v_{\#}$ such that $x_{\#}+y_{\#}$, $x_{\#}+u_{\#}$, $y_{\#}+v_{\#}$ and $u_{\#}+v_{\#}$ belong to **S** but $x_{\#}+v_{\#}$ and $y_{\#}+u_{\#}$ do not.

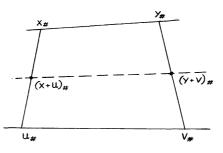


Fig. 18

$$f(x+u, y+v) = 0 + 1 + 1 + 0 = 2 \neq 0.$$

Hence $(x+u)_{\#} + (y+v)_{\#} \notin \mathbf{S}$; we choose L equal to this line. Now suppose $z_{\#} < L$, $z_{\#} \leqslant z_{\#}^{\sigma}$.

$$z=(x+u)+\lambda(y+v).$$

If f is a hermitian α -form, then

$$f(z, z) = 2(\lambda + \lambda^{\alpha}) = 0.$$
$$\lambda + \lambda^{\alpha} = 0.$$

Hence

$$z_{\pm} < (x + \lambda y)_{\pm} + (u + \lambda v)_{\pm} = M.$$

 $f(x+\lambda y, u+\lambda v) = \lambda + \lambda^{\alpha} = 0$. Hence $(x+\lambda y)_{\#}$ and $(u+\lambda v)_{\#}$, which are $\in \mathbf{S}$, are joined in S. Therefore $M \in \mathbf{S}$. As $z_{\#} < M$, $z_{\#} \in \mathbf{S}$.

If *f* is skew-symmetric, the proof is even simpler:

 $f(x + \lambda y, u + \lambda v) = -\lambda + \lambda = 0$. Hence $M \in S$ and therefore $z_{\#} \in S$. This completes the proof.

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